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Gold nanoparticles supported on ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheets as efficient photocatalysts for selective oxidation of methane to ethane under ambient conditions

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we fabricated photocatalysts comprising of $ZnGa_2O_4$ nanosheets modified with gold (Au) nanoparticles for the selective oxidative coupling of methane (CH₄). Our findings indicate that the C_2H_6 production rate of $ZnGa_2O_4$ with the optimal loading of Au nanoparticles (NPs) reached 1315.3 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, with a selectivity of 53 %. These results were considerably higher than those obtained with pure $ZnGa_2O_4$. The presence of Au NPs facilitated the activation of O_2 molecules, leading to the generation of superoxide ions (O_2), which were the primary active species responsible for the cleavage of CH_4 into methyl radicals ($\bullet CH_3$). Additionally, Au NPs stabilized $\bullet CH_3$ and promoted the coupling of $\bullet CH_3$ into C_2H_6 while impeding the excessive oxidation of $\bullet CH_3$ into CO_2 . In conclusion, our study demonstrates that modifying $ZnGa_2O_4$ with Au NPs can significantly enhance the yield and selectivity of C_2H_6 during the photocatalytic oxidative coupling of CH_4 .

1. Introduction

The catalytic conversion of CH_4 into valuable chemicals is an essential research direction in the field of C1 catalysis [1–3]. Traditionally, thermal catalytic pathways have been used to convert CH_4 into high-value compounds such as CH_3OH , C_2H_6 , C_2H_4 , etc [4–6]. However, these pathways require high catalytic reaction temperatures (700–1110 °C) and high reaction pressures (> 1 MPa). Additionally, as the reaction proceeds, catalyst deactivation due to carbon deposition and the occurrence of side reactions such as CH_4 transition oxidation inevitably occur [7–9]. Therefore, the development of mild, green, low-energy, and low-cost CH_4 conversion routes has become a key challenge in the field. By exploring alternative catalytic pathways, we can overcome these limitations and develop more efficient and sustainable methods for CH_4 conversion.

Fortunately, the use of inorganic semiconductor photocatalysts for the photocatalytic conversion of CH_4 into high-value products has emerged as a promising direction for green CH_4 transformation and has gained significant attention [10]. A range of noble metal-loaded semiconductor photocatalysts have been developed and reported, including Au-ZnO-DO hybrid materials, Au-ZnO porous nanosheets, and Pd

atom-modified TiO_2 materials [11–13]. These photocatalysts have been shown to achieve high efficiency in oxidative or non-oxidative coupling of CH_4 under illumination conditions. It is worth noting that the photocatalytic non-oxidative coupling of CH_4 is an endothermic reaction, which is limited by thermodynamics and can be challenging to achieve high conversion rates [11]. In contrast, CH_4 oxidative coupling is an exothermic reaction, which makes it more thermodynamically favorable and can achieve higher conversion rates than non-oxidative coupling [11]. Therefore, oxidative coupling may be the preferred reaction pathway for achieving the highest CH_4 conversion rates.

The photocatalytic oxidative coupling of CH_4 involves the dehydrogenation of CH_4 molecules on the catalyst surface to produce $\bullet CH_3$, which then couples into C_2H_6 molecules, making it a recognized pathway for CH_4 conversion [14–16]. However, the main challenge of this reaction is the adsorption and activation of CH_4 molecules to promote dehydrogenation to generate $\bullet CH_3$, and stabilizing $\bullet CH_3$ to prevent its transitional oxidation to CO_2 by O_2 [17,18]. To overcome this challenge, constructing an efficient active center for CH_4 adsorption and activation has become a focus of research. Noble metal nanoparticles have been shown to efficiently stabilize $\bullet CH_3$ and facilitate its coupling into C_2H_6 , making them effective catalysts for this reaction [19].

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Reactive oxygen species play a crucial role in promoting the generation of ${\bullet}\text{CH}_3$ from CH₄, and are generally formed by photogenerated holes oxidizing lattice oxygen or adsorbing oxygen on the surface [20]. Therefore, noble metal modification and efficient generation of reactive oxygen species have become the basic requirements for developing efficient catalysts for CH₄ oxidative coupling.

Here, we have successfully designed and synthesized a photocatalyst for methane oxidative coupling reaction by modifying ZnGa_2O_4 nanosheets with Au NPs. Our optimized catalyst showed a remarkable C_2H_6 yield of 1315.3 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ with a selectivity of 53 %. Our findings suggest that Au NPs play a crucial role in activating O_2 molecules, which leads to the generation of O_2 . This O_2 species is the main active substance responsible for the splitting of CH_4 into \bullet CH₃. Our results also revealed that the Au NPs can stabilize \bullet CH₃ and promote its coupling into C_2H_6 while simultaneously inhibiting its excessive oxidation into CO₂. Our study highlights the importance of Au modification in enhancing the photocatalytic activity of ZnGa_2O_4 nanosheets for CH₄ conversion.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation of Au-ZnGa₂O₄

After 0.42 g of PVP was dissolved in 32 mL of deionized water, 0.1 g of ZnGa $_2$ O $_4$ was weighed and added to the above solution, stirred, and dispersed. Then a particular volume of HAuCl $_4$ ·4H $_2$ O solution (2 mg/mL) was added and stirred for 40 min. Finally, 0.48 g of C $_6$ H $_8$ O $_6$ was dissolved in 16 mL of deionized water, and the solution was slowly

dropped into the above-mixed solution, and the mixture was stirred continuously for 3 h in a water bath at 88 $^{\circ}$ C. Once the reaction ended, the product was collected, washed with distilled water, and vacuum-dried at 40 $^{\circ}$ C for 6 h.

2.2. Photocatalytic activity measurement

10 mg of photocatalyst was uniformly dispersed in 1.5 mL of deionized water. Then, the dispersion liquid was put into a circular quartz tank with a diameter of 4 cm, and dried to form a film at 70 $^{\circ}$ C. The quartz tank containing the catalyst was placed in a 150 mL quartz batch reactor, sealed and evacuated to remove air from the reactor. After the air in the reactor was completely removed, 4 mL of pure CH4 gas and a certain volume of oxygen were injected with a chromatographic gas injection needle, respectively, and stirred for 1 h to reach the adsorption equilibrium. A 300 W xenon lamp (PLS-SXE300D/300DUV, Beijing Perfectlight Technology Co., Ltd.) was used as the light source (Fig. S1). After 3 h of illumination, 0.5 mL of gaseous product was removed from the reactor with a gas sampling needle, and the product was analyzed and quantified by gas chromatography with a flame ionization detector and a thermal conductivity detector (FULI GC9790II).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Composition and Morphological Characterization

Fig. 1 outlines the catalyst preparation process. To create the $\rm ZnGa_2O_4$ nanosheets photocatalyst, a simple solvothermal method was

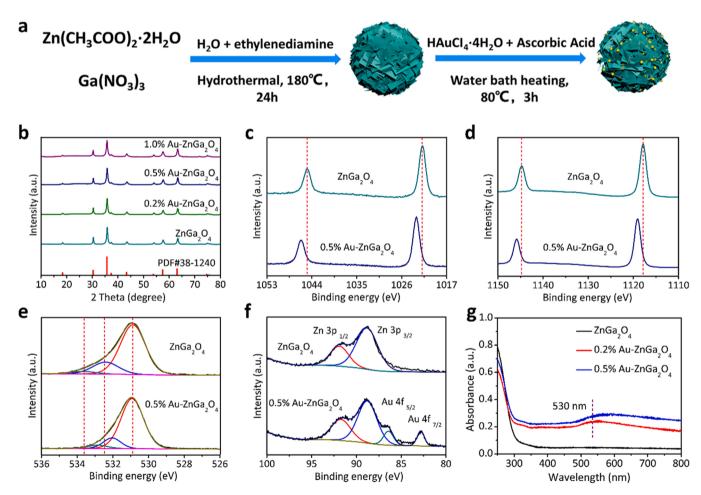


Fig. 1. (a) Schematic diagram of the preparation of Au-ZnGa₂O₄ composite photocatalyst. (b) XRD patterns of series of photocatalysts. XPS spectra of 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ and ZnGa₂O₄; (c) Zn 3d, (d) Ga 2p, (e) O 1s, and (f) Zn 3p and Au 4f. (g) DRS patterns of 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄, 0.2 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄, and ZnGa₂O₄.

employed using a mixed solution of ethylenediamine and H₂O as the solvent [21]. The solution was then reduced with ascorbic acid as a reducing agent to obtain the ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheets photocatalyst supported by Au NPs (Fig. 1a). The crystal and electronic structures of the photocatalysts were analyzed using XRD and XPS, respectively. The XRD patterns of ZnGa₂O₄ and ZnGa₂O₄ loaded with different amounts of Au NPs in Fig. 1b corresponded to the standard cards of pure phase ZnGa₂O₄ (PDF[#]38–1240) with no other impurity diffraction peaks observed [22]. The XRD diffraction peaks of Au NPs were not observed, possibly due to their low content [23]. The doublets with binding energies of 1021.85 and 1044.95 eV in Fig. 1c were assigned to Zn²⁺ of ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheets. The binding energies of Zn²⁺ in the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample were shifted towards higher binding energy compared to pure ZnGa2O4, indicating electron transfer between Au NPs and ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheets [24]. Similarly, the binding energies of Ga³⁺ in the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample were also significantly shifted towards higher binding energy compared to pure ZnGa₂O₄ (Fig. 1d) [25]. The set of peaks with binding energies of 530.90, 532.45 and 533.61 eV were assigned to lattice oxvgen, oxygen vacancies, and surface adsorbed oxygen species of ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheets, respectively (Fig. 1e) [26]. In the 0.5 % Au-Zn-Ga₂O₄ photocatalyst, the three peaks with binding energies of 530.93, 532.07, and 532.96 eV were assigned to lattice oxygen, oxygen vacancies, and surface adsorbed oxygen species [26,27]. The peaks with binding energies of 88.82 and 91.99 eV corresponded to Zn 3p_{1/2}, and Zn 3p_{3/2} in both the ZnGa₂O₄ sample and the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample (Fig. 1f) [28]. The two peaks with binding energies of 82.79 and 86.44 eV corresponded to the Au 4f_{5/2} and Au 4f_{7/2} of the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄, respectively [29]. The shifts in binding energies of the constituent elements of ZnGa₂O₄ indicate substantial charge transfer between Au NPs and ZnGa₂O₄, demonstrating a strong interaction between the two. UV-DRS spectra showed that the ZnGa₂O₄ and Au-ZnGa₂O₄ series samples had the same optical absorption band edge (~300 nm), corresponding to a band gap of 4.13 eV. With an increase in Au loading, the intensity of light absorption was significantly enhanced and accompanied by the appearance of Au plasmon resonance absorption at 530 nm (Fig. 1g) [30]. These results confirm that Au NPs are supported on the surface of ZnGa_2O_4 , and there is a specific interaction mode between the two.

The microstructure of ZnGa₂O₄ modified with Au NPs was characterized using SEM and TEM. Fig. S2 shows SEM images of the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample at varying magnifications, which reveal that the sample exhibits the basic morphology of microflowers self-assembled from ZnGa₂O₄ two-dimensional nanosheets. However, the smaller size of the Au NPs makes their morphology difficult to observe. To address this, TEM images at different magnifications (Fig. 2a and b) were obtained, which confirmed that the Au NPs are dispersed on the ZnGa2O4 nanosheets and have an average size of ~10 nm. Additionally, highresolution TEM (HRTEM) images (Fig. 2c-e) revealed two different lattice fringes of 0.251 and 0.235 nm, corresponding to ZnGa₂O₄ (3 1 1) and Au NPs (1 1 1) crystal faces, respectively [31,32]. It can be observed that Au NPs are closely attached to the surface of ZnGa₂O₄. Elemental mapping images (Fig. 2f-j) showed that the distribution of Au elements on the catalyst is uniform, confirming that the Au NPs are evenly distributed on the ZnGa₂O₄ surface. Furthermore, the specific surface areas of pure ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ photocatalysts are 36.76 and 37.87 cm² g⁻¹, respectively. The similarity in specific surface areas indicates that the difference in photocatalytic activity is not caused by the specific surface area (Fig. S3).

3.2. Photocatalytic CH₄ oxidative coupling

Fig. 3 depicts the photocatalytic activity of $ZnGa_2O_4$ and $Aumodified\ ZnGa_2O_4$ catalysts in the oxidative coupling reaction of CH_4 . The study initially explores the effect of the amount of O_2 on the oxidative coupling of CH_4 (Fig. 3a). For the 0.5 % $Au-ZnGa_2O_4$ sample, the activity of the series products and their selectivity change with the increase of O_2 content. C_2H_6 selectivity decreases, while the activity of CO_2 gradually increases. The appropriate amount of O_2 for the oxidative coupling of CH_4 is determined to be 1.6 mL, as it results in a C_2H_6 product yield of 1315.3 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a selectivity of 53.3 %. Moreover, the disparity in the yields of H_2 and C_2H_6 , with the H_2 yield being less than half of the expected ratio in the absence of O_2 , indicates a

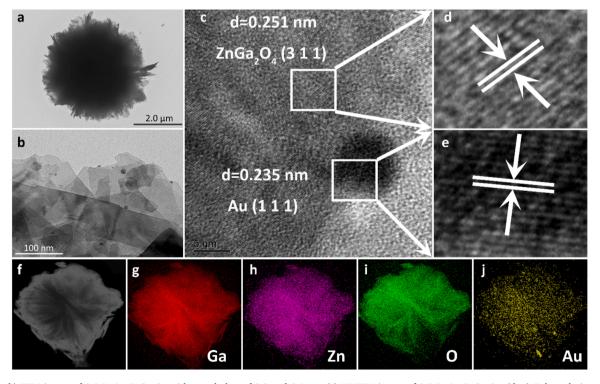


Fig. 2. . (a, b) TEM image of 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ with a scale bar of 2.0 and 0.1 μm . (c) HRTEM image of 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄. (d, e) Enlarged view of different constituencies of HRTEM. (f–j) EDX elemental mapping images.

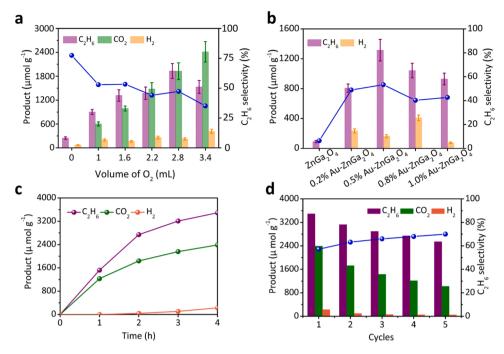


Fig. 3. Photocatalytic oxidative coupling of CH_4 performance. (a) Photocatalytic oxidative coupling of CH_4 activity of 0.5 % Au- $ZnGa_2O_4$ sample under different O_2 content. (b) Photocatalytic activity of oxidative coupling of CH_4 over $ZnGa_2O_4$ loaded with different amounts of Au. (c) Product activity as a function of reaction time, (d) Performance of C_2H_6 , CO_2 , and H_2 in durability tests.

deviation from the anticipated 1:1 stoichiometric ratio. This observation suggests the presence of other influencing factors or reactions that impact the distribution and yield of products in the absence of O₂. The use of batch reactors and the method of sample injection inevitably leads to oxygen leakage. When oxygen enters the reactor, it may react with hydrogen. Additionally, metal nanoparticles have a propensity for efficient hydrogen adsorption. Consequently, the adsorption of gold nanoparticles and the occurrence of oxygen leakage significantly contribute to the deviation in hydrogen gas yield. Fig. 3b displays the photocatalytic activity of ZnGa₂O₄ with different Au loadings for the oxidative coupling of CH₄. The formation rate of C₂H₆ exhibit a volcano-shaped relationship with increasing Au loading. Particularly, the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample achieves a C₂H₆ formation rate of 1315.3 μmol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a selectivity of 53.3 %, significantly higher than that of some common photocatalytic CH₄ coupling conversion systems (Table S1). However, the hydrogen production rate did not exhibit a consistent pattern with increasing Au NPs loading, suggesting the influence of factors or reactions other than Au NPs loading. The yield of hydrogen was affected by the adsorption of Au NPs and the occurrence of oxygen leakage, leading to bias. It is worth noting that in the CH₄ oxidative coupling reaction, the intermediate superoxide anion produced by O2, as an oxidant, exhibits a strong oxidizing ability. As a result, CH4 is directly oxidized to CO2 in the absence of other oxygenates involved in CH4 oxidation. The pure ZnGa₂O₄ sample has a C₂H₆ yield of only 91.04 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹, while the CO₂ formation rate reaches 1329 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹. In contrast, the CO_2 formation rate of the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa $_2O_4$ catalyst is 988 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Fig. S4). The loading of Au, on the one hand, prevents the excessive oxidation of CH₄, and on the other hand, significantly enhances the C₂H₆ generation rate. Fig. 3c shows the dependence of the formation rate of CH₄ oxidative coupling products on the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ catalyst as a function of irradiation time. With an increase in irradiation time, the activity of the series of products continues to increase, but the growth rate decreases due to the consumption of O2 in the reaction system. Several control experiments were performed to determine that the reaction is a light-induced CH₄ coupling reaction (Fig. S5). Without the addition of a catalyst or light, and with the use of Ar instead of CH₄, no related products are formed. The photocatalytic activity of oxidative coupling is much higher than that of non-oxidative coupling, indicating that the reaction is a photocatalytic oxidative coupling of the CH_4 reaction of the Au- $ZnGa_2O_4$ catalyst. Finally, Fig. 3d shows the stability test of the catalyst, which reveals that the activity of the product remains stable with an increase in the number of cycles. The XRD and DRS of the catalyst remain unchanged before and after the reaction, indicating that the catalyst has good cycling stability (Fig. S6 and Fig. S7).

3.3. Photoelectric and fluorescent characterization

To investigate the underlying factors contributing to the superior photocatalytic activity of the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample, we conducted photoelectrochemical and fluorescence spectroscopy analyses to evaluate the efficiency of photogenerated carrier separation and migration rates. The rapid separation efficiency and fast migration rate of photogenerated carriers often correspond to a high photocurrent density and a small electrochemical impedance radius, respectively [33]. Consistent with this expectation, the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample showed higher photocurrent density and smaller electrochemical impedance radius compared to pure ZnGa₂O₄, as depicted in Fig. 4a and b, respectively. This implies that the modification of Au NPs can effectively promote the separation and migration of photogenerated carriers in the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample, leading to enhanced photocatalytic oxidative coupling of CH₄ molecules on the catalyst surface. In addition, the low fluorescence intensity observed for the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample indicates a significant improvement in the separation efficiency of photogenerated carriers relative to pure ZnGa₂O₄, as presented in Fig. 4c. These findings suggest that the modification of Au NPs facilitates the migration and separation of photogenerated carriers, leading to the observed superior photocatalytic performance of the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ photocatalyst in the CH₄ oxidative coupling reaction.

3.4. Discussion on the reaction mechanism

Both pure $ZnGa_2O_4$ and $ZnGa_2O_4$ modified with 0.5 % Au NPs demonstrate activity for oxidative coupling of CH₄. However, the

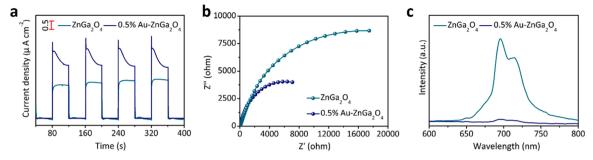


Fig. 4. (a) Electrochemical photocurrents, (b) electrochemical impedance spectra, and (c) photoluminescence spectra of ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ samples.

significant differences in product activity and selectivity between the two samples may correspond to different reaction mechanisms. The CH₄ desorption temperatures of pure ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ samples are consistent, indicating that the chemisorption capacities for CH₄ molecules are similar. The difference in the CH₄ desorption peak at 420 °C only means that the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample has a higher CH₄ adsorption quantity than pure ZnGa₂O₄ (Fig. 5a). Thus, the modification of Au NPs cannot achieve the activation of CH₄ molecules. Instead, the activation of CH₄ molecules may occur on the ZnGa₂O₄ support. The TPD test of O₂ shows that the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample has a better O₂ adsorption ability than ZnGa₂O₄, as indicated by the more prominent peak area of the desorption peak of chemisorbed O₂ centered at ~430 °C (Fig. 5b). This suggests that the modification of Au NPs can promote the adsorption and activation of O2 by ZnGa2O4. The activated O2 molecules generate O_2^- to attack the activated CH₄ molecules adsorbed on the surface of ZnGa₂O₄, thus realizing the dehydrogenation coupling of CH₄ molecules. In addition, the dehydrogenation of CH4 molecules to generate •CH₃, and the coupling of •CH₃ to produce C₂H₆, is a recognized reaction pathway in oxidative coupling of CH₄ [34,35]. Therefore, in situ electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy is employed to monitor the pathways through which •CH3 may be generated during the reaction. It's worth noting that neither the pure EPR tube nor the injection of Ar into the EPR tube produced any signal (Fig. S8). Fig. 5c shows the EPR spectra of the pure ZnGa₂O₄ sample under dark and light conditions in an O₂ atmosphere. In the dark, the ZnGa₂O₄ sample shows EPR signals at g = 1.959 and 2.002, which are assigned to zinc ions

acting as donors and oxygen vacancies, respectively [36,37]. However, under light irradiation, the capture of photogenerated electrons by oxvgen vacancies results in the disappearance of the EPR signal. Simultaneously, the signal of zinc ion as a donor is enhanced. Furthermore, a set of EPR signals generated at g = 2.001, g = 2.017, g = 2.022, and g = 2.031 is attributed to O_2 , which is caused by the oxidation of O_2 by photogenerated electrons [38,39]. It is worth noting that the O_2^- may be the critical active species for inducing the generation of •CH₃ from CH₄ molecules. In the dark, in the mixed gas of CH₄ and O₂, ZnGa₂O₄ still shows signals of zinc ions as donors and oxygen vacancies. However, the signal ascribed to O₂ is significantly reduced during illumination, as shown in Fig. 5d. This indicates that the CH₄ molecule undergoes a significant chemical reaction with the O₂, resulting in a reduction in the concentration of the O2 and the production of •CH3. Compared with ZnGa₂O₄, the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample shows a stronger O₂ signal in the O2 atmosphere under light conditions, indicating that the modification of Au NPs can promote the adsorption and activation of O2 (Fig. 5e). Similarly, it was observed that the intensity of O_2^- signal in the mixed atmosphere of CH₄ and O₂ was reduced in the 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample under illumination compared to the EPR signal in the O2 atmosphere (Fig. 5f). This finding further supports the occurrence of a chemical reaction between CH₄ molecules and O₂ under light conditions. Therefore, the above results demonstrate that both pure ZnGa₂O₄ and Au NPs-modified ZnGa₂O₄ are capable of achieving O₂ adsorption and activation. Additionally, the modification of Au NPs can enhance the adsorption and activation capacity of O2, resulting in the generation

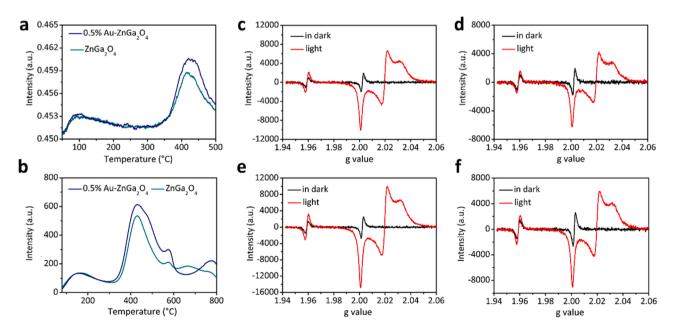


Fig. 5. (a) CH_4 -TPD of $ZnGa_2O_4$ and 0.5 % Au- $ZnGa_2O_4$ samples. (b) O_2 -TPD of $ZnGa_2O_4$ and 0.5 % Au- $ZnGa_2O_4$ samples. (c) In situ EPR spectra of $ZnGa_2O_4$ in CH_4 + CH_4 (d) In situ EPR spectra of $ZnGa_2O_4$ in CH_4 + CH_4 + C

of more O₂ species that can induce the conversion of CH₄ into •CH₃.

The modification of Au NPs not only enhances the adsorption and activation ability of O_2 , leading to the production of more O_2^- species, which induces CH4 to form •CH3, but also efficiently adsorbs and stabilizes •CH3. Therefore, in situ EPR experiments were conducted to detect the signals generated by CH₄ and O₂. The signals of the DMPO-•CH₃ integrated object were not detected on the surface of ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ without light irradiation. However, under light conditions, the signals of DMPO-OCH3 were detected on the surface of ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ samples (Fig. 6a). It is worth noting that the signal of DMPO-oCH3 on the surface of 0.5 % Au-ZnGa2O4 is significantly stronger than that on the surface of ZnGa₂O₄ (Fig. 6b). This confirms that the modification of Au NPs can promote the generation and stabilization of •CH₃. Furthermore, Both ZnGa₂O₄ and 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ have been shown to effectively adsorb and activate O₂ to generate O₂, which in turn attacks CH₄ molecules to produce •CH₃. However, on the ZnGa₂O₄ surface, most of the ●CH₃ is converted to CO₂ with only a small amount coupling into C2H6. In contrast, 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ efficiently couples most of the •CH₃ into C₂H₆ and only converts a small amount to CO2. To monitor the catalytic process of this reaction, in situ diffuse reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy was employed. Fig. 6c displays the infrared Fourier transform spectra of pure ZnGa₂O₄ with varying illumination times under the mixed atmosphere of CH₄ and O₂. The infrared absorption peak at 1539 cm^{-1} , assigned to the b-CO $_3^{2-}$ species absorption peak on the catalyst surface, was detected under light conditions [40]. b- CO_3^{2-} is a significant intermediate in the photocatalytic oxidation of CH₄ to CO₂. Furthermore, the infrared absorption peaks at 3014 cm⁻¹ 1302 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the infrared absorption peaks of CH₄, which has four vibrational modes: v₁-v₄, with frequencies of 2917, 1533, 3019, and 1306 cm⁻¹, respectively. Among these modes, v₁ and v₂ are infrared-forbidden modes, while v_3 and v_4 are infrared-active modes [41]. In contrast, only the infrared peak at 3014 cm⁻¹ is detected on the

0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample, and the infrared peak at $1302~\rm cm^{-1}$ is not detected (Fig. 6d). This suggests that the infrared absorption peak at $1302~\rm cm^{-1}$, associated with the v_4 mode, diminishes due to the occupation of surface sites available for CH₄ adsorption by Au NPs. [41] Additionally, the key intermediates for the overoxidation of CH₄ to CO₂ are not detected. This indicates that Au NPs are effective in reducing the excessive oxidation of CH₄ on the surface of ZnGa₂O₄.

3.5. Theoretical calculation

The activation and cleavage of CH_4 are initiated by O_2^- . However, bare $ZnGa_2O_4$ without Au generates only a small amount of C_2H_6 and over-oxidizes most of CH_4 to CO_2 . Therefore, we believe that Au plays a crucial role in coupling the $\bullet CH_3$ intermediate to C_2H_6 during the reaction. Conversely, if $\bullet CH_3$ is located on the surface of $ZnGa_2O_4$ nanosheets, it will be further oxidized to CO_2 . Hence, theoretical calculations were utilized to determine the reaction site for the coupling of $\bullet CH_3$ to C_2H_6 . As depicted in Fig. 7, compared with pure $ZnGa_2O_4$ nanosheets, $\bullet CH_3$ adsorption on the surface of Au NPs requires overcoming an energy barrier of 0.45 eV, while adsorption on the surface of $ZnGa_2O_4$

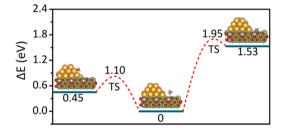


Fig. 7. The energy barrier of C-H bond cleavage of CH₄ on 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄.

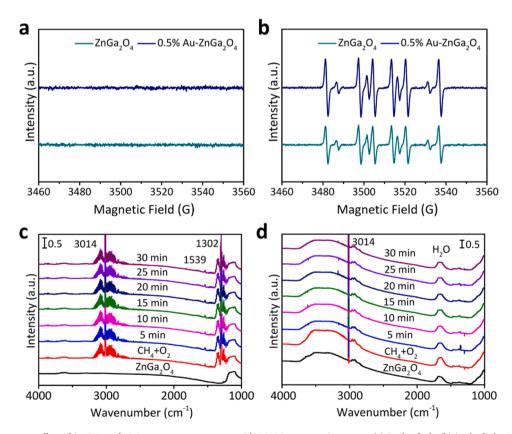


Fig. 6. The EPR spectra are collected in CH_4 and H_2O at room temperature with DMPO as atrapping agent. (a) in the dark. (b) in the light. In situ FTIR spectra for photocatalytic conversion of CH_4 over (c) $ZnGa_2O_4$ and (d) 0.5% $Au-ZnGa_2O_4$.

necessitates overcoming an energy barrier of 1.53 eV. Obviously, \bullet CH₃ is more readily adsorbed on the surface of Au NPs [11]. Due to the stable adsorption of \bullet CH₃ by Au NPs, \bullet CH₃ is efficiently coupled to C₂H₆ on the surface of Au NPs, and further reaction with O₂ is avoided. On the contrary, on the ZnGa₂O₄ surface, due to the co-existence of \bullet CH₃ and O₂, excessive oxidation of \bullet CH₃ to CO₂ occurs, and only a small amount of \bullet CH₃ is coupled to C₂H₆.

Based on the preceding discussion, we propose a reaction mechanism for the photocatalytic coupling of CH_4 into C_2H_6 on the 0.5~% Au-ZnGa₂O₄ sample, as shown in Eqs. 1–7. First, under light conditions, 0.5~% Au-ZnGa₂O₄ is excited to generate photogenerated electrons and holes. The photogenerated electrons are annihilated by oxygen vacancies, resulting in the disappearance of the oxygen vacancy signal. However, photogenerated electrons can reduce the O₂ adsorbed on the sample surface to O₂. As an important active species, O₂ is further reduced to O⁻ by photogenerated electrons [42,43]. O⁻ is used for the extraction of H⁺ in CH₄, resulting in \bullet CH₃ and OH⁻. Finally, \bullet CH₃ is coupled on the surface of Au NPs to generate C₂H₆ and desorbed, while OH⁻ is transformed into O²⁻ and placed in 0.5 % Au-ZnGa₂O₄ crystals to form lattice oxygen.

$$Zn^{2+}[Ga_2^{3+}O_3^{2-}V_O'] \longrightarrow^{hv} Zn^{2+}[Ga_2^{3+}O_3^{2-}V_O] + 2e^-$$
 (1)

$$O_2 + e^- \rightarrow O_2^- \tag{2}$$

$$O_2^- + e^- \rightarrow 2O^-$$
 (3)

$$2 CH_4 + 2O^- \rightarrow 2CH_3 \cdot + 2OH^-$$
 (4)

$$2OH^{-} \to O^{2-} + H_2O \tag{5}$$

$$Zn^{2+}[Ga_2^{3+}O_3^{2-}V_O] + O^{2-} \rightarrow Zn^{2+}[Ga_2^{3+}O_4^{2-}]$$
 (6)

$$2CH_3 \cdot \longrightarrow^{Au} C_2H_6$$
 (7)

4. Conclusions

In summary, we report the successful preparation of ZnGa₂O₄ nanosheet photocatalysts using a one-step solvothermal method, followed by surface modification with Au NPs via a simple chemical reduction approach. The resulting noble metal-modified inorganic semiconductor photocatalysts demonstrate unique catalytic effects on the oxidative coupling of CH₄ under full-band irradiation. The presence of Au NPs promotes the adsorption and activation of O2, resulting in the generation of O₂, which in turn facilitates the cracking of CH₄ into •CH₃ and its subsequent coupling into C₂H₆. Moreover, Au NPs are effective in stabilizing •CH3 and preventing its excessive oxidation to CO2. As a result, the optimal Au NPs modified ZnGa₂O₄ photocatalyst exhibits a C_2H_6 yield of 1315.3 μ mol g⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a selectivity of 53 %, both of which are significantly higher than those of pure ZnGa₂O₄. Our findings are supported by both photoelectrochemical and fluorescence measurements, which indicate that the modification of Au NPs promotes the separation and migration of photogenerated charges, thereby enhancing CH₄ conversion. In addition to providing a feasible process for CH₄ resource conversion, this work can serve as a landmark achievement in the field of solar energy.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Yao Chai: Experimental data analysis and writing. Sishi Tang: Catalyst preparation, performance testing and characterization. Qiang Wang: Catalyst preparation, performance testing and characterization. Qiong Wu: Catalyst performance testing. Jun Liang: Writing review & editing. Li Li: Experimental design and editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123012.

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